

High efficiency photocatalytic degradation of Ambroxol over Mn doped TiO2: Experimental designs, identification of transformation products, mineralization and mechanism

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1	High efficiency photocatalytic degradation of Ambroxol over Mn doped TiO ₂ :
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4	
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21 Abstract

22 Ambroxol (AMB) is a drug commonly used for chronic bronchitis prevention. Once released in surface water, this recalcitrant chemical becomes a hazardous pollutant. 23 Here, we investigated the ability of 1% Mn-doped TiO₂ (Mn-TiO₂) to mineralize 24 AMB by photocatalysis. We studied the morphology, and the physical and 25 electrochemical properties of Mn-TiO₂ using X-ray diffraction, Scanning electron 26 microscopy, Transmission electron microscopy, X-ray fluorescence, BET method, 27 28 UV-visible, and electrochemical study and optimized the AMB degrading experimental conditions through response surface methodology (RSM). Mn-TiO₂ at 29 the dose of 0.625 g.L⁻¹ allowed the complete photodegradation of AMB (30 ppm) at 30 pH 7 under UVA light irradiation for 30 min while total mineralization in CO_2 (> 31 96%) was achieved after 24 h of irradiation. Mn-TiO2 was 1.6-time more efficient 32 than TiO₂ Degussa P25. Product studies were also carried out by liquid 33

34 chromatography coupled to electrospray high resolution mass spectrometry. Twentyone photodegradation products were detected and identified. In addition, ionic 35 chromatography analyses revealed the release of Br⁻, NH₄⁺, and NO₃⁻ at respectively 36 37 97, 63 and 35% of the total Br, and N initially present in AMB. Finally, the reusability of the photocatalyst was also tested. After four cycles, the almost complete 38 39 photodegradation of AMB was achieved showing that Mn-TiO₂ was highly stable. This work brings new physical characteristics on Mn-TiO₂ photocatalyst. Moreover, it 40 41 is the first study investigating the photocatalytic degradation of recalcitrant AMB 42 drug.

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Keywords: Doped semi-conductor, emerging contaminant, Anti-mucolytic, Response
surface methodology, Photoproducts, Reusability.

46

47 **1. Introduction**

48 In recent years, numerous studies have indicated the presence of a new class of molecules in the aquatic environment, known as "emerging pollutants" (Bagheri et al., 49 50 2021; Salazar et al., 2020a; Tobajas et al., 2017a). The extent of their threat toward human life, fauna and flora has not yet been completely elucidated, and their recent 51 52 detection in water, even at very low amounts (Salazar et al., 2020a), has caused 53 toxicity to plants, animals and humans (Abbas et al., 2018; Iqbal, 2016), and represents a new kind of concern that has no regulatory status. The creation of 54 productive strategies for the degradation of this type of pollutants has become an 55 56 urgent question and a subject of high priority for the researchers. (Salazar et al., 2020b; Tobajas et al., 2017b). 57

58 Monitoring of these sources has revealed that these pollutants are related to drugs, 59 pesticides, personal care products, etc. (Yang et al., 2017), which contaminate natural 60 resources such as urban areas, lakes and rivers. Additionally, several pharmaceutical 61 products are not adsorbed significantly in the subsoil because of their polar nature and 62 therefore can infiltrate into groundwater. It is one of the main resources that these 63 pollutants end up in drinking water, which decreases its quality, thus causing 64 waterborne infections (Sousa et al., 2018).

65 Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease affects approximately 64 million people worldwide, and mortality rates should increase. Estimates for 2030, published by the 66 World Health Organization, predict that chronic obstructive pulmonary disease will 67 become the third leading cause of death worldwide. This inevitably leads to an 68 increase in the consumption of medications, which in turn increases concern about 69 70 their presence in the aquatic environment and about their potential adverse effects on (trans-4-[(2-amino-3,5-dibromobenzyl) 71 non-target populations. AMB amino] 72 cyclohexanol) is an active ingredient used in the chronic bronchitis prevention (Xu et 73 al., 2015); for complications, such as bronchopulmonary diseases in new borns, hyaline membrane diseases and in antioxidant therapies. Various analytical techniques 74 have been reported for AMB titration in both biological and pharmaceutical samples 75 using liquid chromatography, gas chromatography (Yang et al., 2021), 76 chromatography with amperometric detection (Erady et al., 2019), UV 77 spectrophotometry (Yang et al., 2021) and voltammetry (Zhu et al., 2021). In contrast, 78 79 little is known regarding its environmental behavior, its degradation (Brüggemann et al., 2003), interaction with other environmental media and extraction method from 80 81 wastewaters (Beckers et al., 2018; Brüggemann et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2020). 82 AMB is a biologically recalcitrant substance that for the most part is not degradable in

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wastewater treatment plants (Zhang et al., 2020). Due to its persistence, it is important to use other treatments to ensure its elimination from water (Beckers et al., 2018).

Consequently, the main challenge is to improve processing technologies 85 towards new methods that are less harmful, durable, cost effective and non-corrosive 86 to equipment (Bagheri et al., 2021). In this respect, the photocatalysis is an efficient 87 88 advanced oxidation process (AOP) which offers different advantages such as n ability to apply under ambient temperature and pressure, use to treat emerging pollutants and 89 90 to achieve their mineralization to the ubiquitous substances like H₂O and CO₂(Tab et 91 al., 2020). In this respect, TiO_2 is extensively used (Belabed et al., 2014) in many 92 applications, including paints (Fonseca et al., 2021), toothpastes (Liu et al., 2019), UV 93 protection (Xu et al., 2020), photovoltaics, gas sensors as well as electro- and 94 photochromism materials (Li et al., 2017). Moreover, TiO₂ is nontoxic, inexpensive, chemically stable over the entire pH range, and exhibits excellent performance for 95 removing pollution from both water and air under UV light, which accounts for only 96 5% of the solar radiation (Carvalho et al., 2019; Güy and Özacar, 2016; Khan et al., 97 98 2020; Yanalak et al., 2020). However, as dopants, transition metals significantly 99 improve the photocatalytic performance of TiO₂, limit the recombination of charge 100 carriers and shift the spectral photoresponse toward the visible region(Gu et al., 101 2020). Several dopants, such as Mn (Ahmed, 2016; Prashad Ojha et al., 2020), Fe 102 (Wang et al., 2009), Ni(Dong et al., 2018), Co (Qian et al., 2019), Cr (Santara et al., 2016) and V (Rossi et al., 2018), have been attempted. According to a theoretical 103 104 study, most 3d elements tend to induce surface states within the TiO₂ band gap by 105 inserting semiconductors with intermediate bands (Das and Makal, 2020). Therefore, 106 doping is an attractive approach to provide visible light sensitization centres through the formation of band-gap states. Mn has the highest potential for allowing wide 107

optical absorption in the visible and infrared regions of solar radiation. As a result of
the modification of the optical properties, there is adequate charge carrier mobility
because the intermediate bands due to Mn doping have a significant band bending.
This behavior enables the transmission of visible photons from the valence band (VB)
to the conduction band (CB). To our knowledge, neither the structural, morphological,
optical and electrochemical properties of Mn-TiO₂ nor its application in
photocatalysis have been studied previously.

The main target of this paper was to characterize Mn-TiO₂ as a photocatalyst 115 and to evaluate its performance for the AMB mineralization. This work was the first 116 detailed investigation of the photocatalytic AMB degradation. Photolysis and 117 adsorption of AMB were studied and a multivariate analysis was conducted; In 118 119 addition, a statistical model was developed in order to simultaneously optimize three factors namely, the catalyst dose, AMB concentration and pH. Powerful analytical 120 techniques such as ultra high performance liquid chromatography (UHPLC)-121 electrospray ionization (ESI)- high resolution mass spectrometry (HRMS) and ionic 122 chromatography were used to identify intermediates and propose the mechanism of 123 124 degradation as well as the degree of mineralization during photodegradation. The 125 reusability of Mn-TiO₂ and the mechanism of the photocatalytic degradation were also investigated. 126

127

128 **2. Experimental**

129 **2.1 Materials and reagents**

AMB (Fig. 1 and Table 1) was purchased from Pharmalliance Industry (Algiers) under hydrochloride form and used without any further treatment. Acetonitrile HPLC grade (CH₃ CN, \geq 99.9%), sodium dihydrogen phosphate anhydrous (NaH₂ PO₄,

5

133 99.99%), sodium laureth sulfate (CH₃(CH₂)₁₀CH₂(OCH₂CH₂)_nOSO₃Na, \geq 99%) and formic acid (CH₂ O₂, 98-100%) potassium hydroxide (KOH, ~ 45% (T)) and 134 methanesulfonic acid (CH₄O₃S, \geq 99%) reagent grade were purchased from Sigma-135 136 Aldrich. All solutions were prepared in purified water using a RIOS 5 reverse osmosis and synergy (Millipore) device (resistivity 18 M Ω .cm, DOC < 0.1 mg.L⁻¹). Titanium 137 dioxide powders were obtained from different providers: Eroxide P90 (TiO₂, \geq 99.5%) 138 and Degussa P25 (TiO₂, \geq 99.5%) from Evonik, Hombikat UV100 (TiO₂, 99%) from 139 Sachtleben, anatase (TiO₂, 99.7%), rutile (TiO₂, 99.5%) and Mn-TiO₂ (TiO₂, \geq 97%) 140 141 from Sigma-Aldrich. Sodium sulfate anhydrous (Na₂SO₄, \geq 99%), sulfuric acid $(H_2SO_4, 95.0-98.0\%)$ and sodium hydroxide (NaOH, $\geq 98\%$), all these reagents were of 142 analytical grade and purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. 143

144 **2.2 Characterization of the Mn-TiO₂ catalyst**

145 The X-ray diffraction (XRD), using a Siemens D5000 diffractometer, was conducted 146 to confirm the single phase and to evaluate the mean crystal size (D) of the Mn-TiO₂ 147 nanoparticles. The measurements were performed at room temperature with a Cu K α 148 radiation source (λ = 0.15406 nm) operated at 40 kV and an emission current of 30 149 mA. The crystallites size (D) was evaluated from the broadening (β , rad.) of the 150 strongest XRD peak (101):

- 151 D = $K\lambda$ ($\beta \cos\theta$)
- 152 (1)

where K (= 0.89) is the shape factor and λ the wavelength of the Cu K α radiation. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM, Hirox SEM SH-4000MB) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM, Hitachi H-7650) equipped with an energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) detector were employed to identify the relief and grain dimensions. In regard to the SEM analysis, the sample (Mn-TiO₂) was deposited on a 158 conductive carbon adhesive. For the TEM observation, the powder was dispersed in 159 deionized water and sonicated for 15 min. Next, 10 μ L of the sonicated suspension 160 was deposited on carbon-formvar copper grids and left to dry overnight at room 161 temperature.

The distribution and average size of Mn-TiO₂ particles were determined using Image I 162 software, with a total of 100 particles. The corresponding histogram was obtained 163 with the software Origin 2019. EDS was used for conducting the elemental 164 percentage analysis. The X-ray fluorescence (XRF) spectroscopy was conducted with 165 166 a Panalytical Axios sequential spectrophotometer, and a rhodium tube was fitted as the source of radiation to achieve complete Mn photocatalyst loading. Pressed pellets 167 were used to perform the XRF measurements, and the sample included 10 wt.% wax. 168 169 The BET method was employed to calculate the specific surface area using an ASAP2010 Micrometrics instrument and N2 gas as adsorbent. The UV-visible 170 spectrum of Mn-TiO₂ was recorded with a Varian Cary 500 spectrophotometer 171 attached to an integrating sphere. A PGZ301 potentiostat was used for the 172 electrochemical study, performed in a three-electrode cell containing Na₂SO₄ solution 173 (10⁻¹ mol.L⁻¹) as support electrolyte with the working electrode (Mn-TiO₂), an 174 auxiliary Pt electrode and a saturated calomel electrode (SCE) as the reference. The 175 intensity-potential J(E) characteristics were plotted at room temperature at a scanning 176 rate of 10 mV.s⁻¹. 177

178 2.3 Photocatalytic degradation experiments

The experiments were performed under UVA irradiation; the source was provided by a fluorescent tube (Philips HPK 15 W) emitting in the near UV region (maximum: Mn-TiO₂ powder and 15 mL of AMB solution were introduced in the cylindrical Pyrex reactor (13.5 cm height and 1.9 cm internal diameter) that was

thermoregulated at 25 °C by water circulation in a water jacket to preclude 183 vaporization. The suspension was agitated in the dark for 2 h to reach adsorption 184 equilibrium and illuminated under UVA for 30 min. The degradation was studied 185 under various conditions by varying the pH of the solution, the initial AMB 186 concentration (C_0) and the Mn-TiO₂ dose. H₂SO₄ and NaOH (0.1 mol.L⁻¹) were used 187 for adjusting the pH. Aliquots were regularly withdrawn, vigorously centrifuged 188 (3000 rpm, 5 min) and filtered through a 0.45 µm filter (Waters, Millipore) before 189 analyses. 190

191 **2.4 Analytical determination**

192 **2.4.1 HPLC-UV**

193 The concentration of AMB was determined using a Shimadzu 8040 HPLC system 194 consisting of LC-20AD-XR binary pumps, an SIL-20ACXR autosampler, a SPD-M30A diode array detector, a DGU-20A3 degasser, a CTO-20AC column furnace, an 195 FCV-20AH2 and laboratory solutions Shimadzu software. Analytical separation was 196 performed using a Nucleodur 100-3 C_{18} end-capped column (125 mm×4.0 mm, 3 μ m 197 particle size). The mobile phase was a mixture of (A) 50 mmol.L⁻¹ NaH₂ PO₄, 5 198 mmol.L⁻¹ CH₃(CH₂)₁₀CH₂(OCH₂CH₂)_nOSO₃Na and (B) CH₃ CN. The gradient 199 program started with 15% B from 0 to 5 min, 38% B from 5 to 10 min and 45% B 200 from 10 to 17 min at a flow rate of 0.75 mL.min⁻¹. The detection wavelength, 201 injection volume and column oven temperature were 248 nm, 20 µL and 30 °C, 202 respectively. 203

204 2.4.2 Ionic Chromatography

A ThermoScientific Dionex ICS-5000 instrument equipped with a conductometer detector was employed for ion analysis. A Thermo Scientific Dionex Ion Pac AS11 HC (50 mm×4 mm) column and KOH, as eluent, were used to analyze the anions at 0.25 mL.min⁻¹ and 30 °C. For the NH_4^+ analysis, a Thermo Scientific Dionex Ion Pac CS16 HC column (50 mm×3 mm) and CH_4O_3S as eluent were used at a flow rate of 0.36 mL.min⁻¹ and 40 °C.

211 2.4.3 UHPLC-ESI-HRMS

212 HRMS was performed on an Orbitrap Q-Exactive (Thermoscientific) coupled to an UHPLC instrument Ultimate 3000 RSLC (Thermoscientific). The mass spectrometer 213 with heated ESI was operated in both positive and negative ESI modes with a spray 214 215 voltage of 3 kV for both modes. The column was a Waters analytical column (2.1 216 mm×100 mm, 1.7 µm particle size) and the column oven temperature was regulated at 30 °C. The aqueous phase (A) was a mixture of 0.1% CH₂ O₂ - CH₃ CN as the 217 organic phase (B). The separation was realized with a gradient program that consisted 218 219 of 5% and 99% of the mobile phase B from 0-7.5 and 7.5-8.5 min, respectively. The injection volume was 5 μ L, and the flow speed was fixed at 0.450 mL.min⁻¹. The 220 system was monitored by the Xcalibur 2.2 Thermo Fisher Scientific software. 221

222 **2.4.4 TOC analysis**

A Shimadzu 5050 TOC analyzer was used to monitor the mineralization of AMB. Thepercentage of mineralization was calculated using the following equation:

225 *Mineralization* =
$$\frac{(OC_0 - OC_t)}{OC_0} \times 100$$

226 (2)

where OC_0 is the organic carbon present in the solution at the initial time and OC_t at time t. OC is obtained by subtracting the inorganic carbon from the total carbon.

229 2.5 Multivariate experimental design

230 Based on the method of single factor analysis, preliminary tests were initially conducted to determine the ranges of the most prominent experimental parameters 231 influencing the AMB photodegradation. RSM was used to analyze the interactions 232 233 among the AMB concentration, Mn-TiO₂ dose and pH during photodegradation and to study their simultaneous effects. To assess the combined influence of the 234 independent variables (AMB concentration, Mn-TiO₂ dose and pH) on two responses 235 236 using 15 sets of experiments, the Box-Behnken method of experiments was adopted. The response factor (Y) corresponding to AMB depletion (percent) after irradiation 237 238 for 30 min, as shown in Table 2, displays the ranges and levels of the independent variables. 239

The Box-Behnken design was used because it is very effective and does not have any point created by the upper and lower limits of the variables at the vertices of the cubic region. It has been commonly used to optimize different physical, chemical and biological processes that have used RSM (Zhang Junwei et al., 2010). To obtain the experimental matrix and to draw the response surface, the JMP8 (Statical DiscoveryTM from SAS) statistical program was used.

246

247 **3. Results and discussion**

3.1 Comparison of the photocatalytic activities of Mn-TiO₂ and other photocatalysts

The photocatalytic activity of $Mn-TiO_2$ was compared to that of other TiO_2 types, namely, P25, UV100, P90, rutile and anatase, by measuring the loss of AMB against the irradiation time under UVA light (Fig. 2). $Mn-TiO_2$ exhibits the highest of photodegradation with an abatement of 99% after 30 min of irradiation, followed by P25, P90, anatase, UV100 and rutile with 60, 51, 46, 38 and 12% abatement, 255 respectively. The degradation rate was thus 1.65 times faster with Mn-TiO₂ than with 256 P25 under UVA light. Previous studies on synthesized Mn-TiO₂ photocatalysts showed photocatalytic activities, two times higher than TiO_2 P25 (Park et al., 2012). 257 258 Moreover, Mn-TiO₂ is also photoactive under visible light (Oseghe et al., 2015). This 259 could be explained by the fact that doping improved the optical and photoelectrical properties of TiO₂. Indeed, doping led to a redshift of Mn-TiO₂ absorption toward the 260 261 visible region (Oseghe et al., 2015). The high performance of both commercial and synthesized Mn-TiO₂ (Park et al., 2012) could be explained by the existence of sub-262 263 band-gap states for effective excitation under irradiation by low energy photons, thus extending the lifetime of charge carriers by providing a longer diffusion length before 264 265 the recombination of (e-/h+) pairs (Oseghe et al., 2015). No detailed studies were 266 carried out for the selected catalyst (Mn-TiO₂); thus, we conducted several characterizations to understand its performance. 267

268

3.2 Mn-TiO₂ characterization

269 The XRD analysis was used to characterize the crystal structure, and the 270 corresponding pattern is shown in Fig. S1. According to JCPDS No. 65-5714, the 271 characteristic peaks at 29.47, 43.18, 44.18, 45.10, 56.41, 63.49, 64.93, 73.6, 74.32, 81.96, 83.89, 88.74, 90.29, 91.32, 97.56, 99.47, 100.17 and 100.82° are assigned to 272 273 the anatase-phase TiO_2 (space group I41/amd) correspond to the reflections from 274 (101), (103), (004), (112), (200), (105), (211), (213), (204), (116), (220), (107), (215), (301), (008), (303), (224), (312) crystal planes of the tetragonal TiO₂ structure. The 275 respective measured *d*-spacings are: 3.51, 2.43, 2.37, 2.33, 1.89, 1.70, 1.66, 1.49, 1.48, 276 1.36, 1.33, 1.28, 1.26, 1.25, 1.19, 1.17, 1.16 and 1.15 Å. 277

On the other hand, the particle size of the catalyst (D=37 nm) was calculated from the full width at half maximum by using the acquired data from the XRD pattern. The broadening of the peaks suggests a smaller size of $Mn-TiO_2$ crystals, which is also confirmed by the SEM and TEM images. The mean particle size correlates well with the BET and TEM analysis (Table S1) which also evaluate the structural morphology of nanocatalyst along with determination of size of its particles.

The SEM micrographs (Fig. 3a and b) revealed that the particles have nanoscale sizes 284 285 and seem spherical in general. To better explore the particle size distribution and to study the morphology of the photocatalyst, TEM was also performed. Fig. 3c and d 286 287 clearly show that Mn-TiO₂ was formed from crystallites with spherical and uniform forms in agreement with the results obtained for the Mn-TiO₂ nanoparticles (Prashad 288 289 Ojha et al., 2020). The nanospheres were homogeneously dispersed with no segregation phenomenon (Fig. 3c and d). The dark areas of the TEM images could be 290 explained by the high electron density (Molnárová et al., 2020). The crystallite size 291 292 distribution (histogram, Fig. 4a) was plotted from TEM analysis images, and a mean size of 30 nm was calculated with diameters in the range (25-35 nm) for more than 293 294 50% of the particles. Moreover, these acquired results are in good agreement with the 295 BET analysis. The Energy-dispersive X-ray (EDS) spectrum accompanied by the relative weight (%) and atomic (%) of elements were studied to assess the elemental 296 composition of the photocatalyst. Based on the EDS analysis, Table S1 shows the 297 298 elemental composition of the catalyst. As presented in Fig. 4b, all elements exist by their signals, including Ti, O and Mn. The elemental analysis confirmed that 1% Mn 299 was introduced and revealed that Mn²⁺ ions were inserted in the Ti⁴⁺ sub-lattice owing 300 to their ionic radii, 0.061 and 0.090 nm, respectively. Finally, the difference in the 301 atomic ratio may be based on the local analysis with the EDS technique. 302

The XRF analysis allowed us to deduce the elemental composition i.e. the massconcentrations of elements. The XRF analysis provided the total Mn loading on the

photocatalyst (Table S2). Both the EDS and XRF analyses clearly show that TiO_2 are successfully doped by the hetero-valent ion Mn^{2+} .

According to the supplier, the surface area of Mn-TiO₂ could be > 14 m².g⁻¹. From our BET analysis, it was deduced that the exact specific surface area was 37 m².g⁻¹ (Fig. S2), an attractive property for photocatalysis. Comparing this specific surface area (37 m².g⁻¹) to those of other TiO₂ (Table S1), Mn-TiO₂ had the smallest value, which revealed that it was not the only factor influencing the photoactivity.

The diffuse reflectance was used to investigate the optical properties of Mn-TiO₂. The diffuse reflectance spectrum is shown in Fig. S3. The band gap value is 2.88 eV (= $1240/\lambda$). Using the diffuse reflectance data, the gap E_g (Eq. 3) was obtained with a direct transition, and its value was reliably determined from the well-known formula:

316
$$(\alpha h \nu)^{m} = \text{Constant} \times (h\nu - E_g)$$
 (3)

where α and ν m are the optical absorption coefficient and the light frequency, the 317 exponent *m* provides information about the transition type. Compared to pure TiO_2 318 anatase in the literature, the spectral photoresponse is shifted toward longer λ values. 319 320 This result could be due to the appearance of electronic states within the band gap (sub-band-gap states) explained by the gap decrease due to the quantum effect (H. Y. 321 Liu et al., 2020). Consequently, the distance of charge transfer between the valence or 322 conduction band of TiO₂ and Mn-3d electrons is shortened, leading to a visible light 323 absorption response. 324

To our knowledge, only few papers have reported on the photo-electrochemistry of Mn-TiO₂ (Ning et al., 2016); thus, an in-depth electrochemical study was undertaken. The current density-potential J(E) characteristics were plotted in the range of -1 to 1 V_{RHE} in Na₂SO₄ solution (pH ~ 7) at a scan rate of 10 mV.s⁻¹ to elucidate the

329 interfacial reactions and to delimit the electrochemical stability (Fig. 5a). The experiments were performed once the open-circuit potential stabilized. The 330 photocurrent (J_{ph}) starts to flow at a potential of $E_{on} \sim 0.01 V_{RHE}$ (Fig. 5a) and 331 332 increases in the anodic direction, indicating the *n*-type nature of Mn-TiO₂. However, the recombination of electron/hole (e^{-}/h^{+}) pairs at the trapping levels and/or grain 333 boundaries was evidenced by the lack of current saturation. The capacitance potential 334 (C⁻²–E) plot (Fig. 5c) provides an accurate flat-band potential of E_{fb} =–0.84 V_{RHE} and 335 an electron concentration N_D = 1.9 \pm 0.1 $\!\times 10^{16}~\text{cm}^{-3}$ from the intersection of the 336 potential axis at infinite capacity ($C^{-2} = 0$) and the slope of the linear part: 337

338
$$C^{-2}$$
 = ± (2/S² e ε ε₀ N_D) {E - E_{fb}}
339 (4)

where ε_0 is the permittivity of vacuum, ε (= 98) the permittivity of Mn-TiO₂ (B. Liu et al., 2013), *e* the electron charge and S the geometric surface area of Mn-TiO₂. The *n*type behavior of Mn-TiO₂ is supported by the positive slope of the (C⁻² - E) plot.

In regard to the quantification of the electrical contributions at the Mn-TiO₂/electrolyte interface, electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was performed. The EIS data of the Mn-TiO₂/Na₂SO₄ junction were obtained at the opencircuit potential (Fig. 5d). The semicircle at high frequencies is assigned to the bulk effect whose center is positioned below the real axis. The depletion angle accounted for the non-ideal component of the capacity attributed to the sub-band-gap states and rugosity of the electrode, which introduce a constant phase element (CPE):

350
$$Z_{CPE}$$
 = Q^{-1} / $(j\omega)^{-k}$
351 (5)

where Q is independent of the frequency, j the complex number $(j^2 = -1)$, ω the angular frequency, and k the homogeneity factor $(0 < k \le 1)$. The displacement from the origin is equal to the electrolyte resistance ($R_{el} = 105 \ \Omega.cm^2$) due mainly to the molar conductivity of the most mobile ion h⁺ (350 $\Omega^{-1}.cm^2.mol^{-1}$).

356

3.3 Adsorption of AMB on Mn-TiO₂

Fig. S4a shows the amounts of AMB adsorbed per gram of Mn-TiO₂ (Q_t) *vs*. the contact time, the equilibrium was reached after 2 h of stirring. The adsorption can be described by the Freundlich model (Eq. 6) (Bekkouche et al., 2012; Ghosh et al., 2019; Malakootian et al., 2020; Pal et al., 2016)

- $361 \quad Q_e = K_F \qquad C^{1/n}$
- 362 (6)

363 The linearization of Eq. (6) indicates the relationship between $\ln Q_e$ and $\ln C_e$ (Eq. 7).

364 ln Q_e = ln K_F + 1/n ln C_e 365 (7)

where $Q_e = (C_o - C_e) \times V/m$ represents the adsorbed quantity of AMB per unit of 366 mass of Mn-TiO₂ (mg.g⁻¹), C_e the AMB concentration at equilibrium (mg.L⁻¹) and K_F 367 368 is the Freundlich coefficient. The coefficient n is related to the adsorption mechanism. Fig. S4b shows that good linearity is obtained by plotting ln Qe against ln Ce. The 369 constants K_F and 1/n deduced from the intercept and the slope are listed in Table S3. 370 K_F is equal to 0.54 and n= 4.24. The value 1/n < 1 corresponds to a L-shape that refers 371 to a decrease in the site availability as the concentration of the drug increases. As 372 373 shown in Table S3, the adsorption coverage and the adsorption constant of AMB on 374 $Mn-TiO_2$ are small compared to those of other phenolic derivatives on other TiO_2 photocatalysts (Bekkouche et al., 2012; Pal et al., 2016). This result could be 375 376 explained by the weak interaction AMB (adsorbate)-Mn-TiO₂ (adsorbent) (Bekkouche et al., 2012; Pal et al., 2016). 377

378 **3.4 Kinetics of photocatalytic degradation**

379	Fig. S5a compares	s the loss of AMB vs.	time in the absence of Mn	n-TiO ₂
380	(photolysis), in the present	ce of Mn-TiO ₂ (adsorptio	on) and in the presence of Mr	n-TiO ₂
381	upon irradiation (photoca	atalysis). While the AM	AB concentration remains	almost
382	unchanged after 30 min of	f irradiation (< 3% degra	dation) in photolysis and dec	reases
383	by 10% through the dark	adsorption, a complete d	legradation (> 95%) is achiev	ved by
384	photocatalysis. For most o	organic compounds (Ars	had et al., 2020; Ghenaatgar	et al.,
385	2019), the photodegradati	on rate follows a pseud	o-first order (Fig. S5b) mod	el and
386	can be linearized as (8):			
387	Ln	C_t/C_o	=	k _{app} ×t
388	(8)			
389	where k_{app} (min ⁻¹) is the a	pparent first-order rate c	onstant and C_t and C_0 are the	AMB

....

concentrations at time t and after dark adsorption, respectively. Fig 10b confirms the 390 pseudo-first-order kinetics for AMB with a high correlation coefficient R^2 (> 0.995). 391

3.5 Construction of the polynomial expression and 3D response surface 392

3.5.1 Statistical analysis 393

A three-variable Box-Behnken design was used to optimize the AMB 394 photocatalytic degradation on Mn-TiO2. This design was chosen owing to its 395 productivity and involves only a limited number of experiments. The spherical design 396 contains all points that lie on a two-square root radius sphere. There are no points on 397 the vertices of the cubic area generated by the lower and upper limits of every 398 variable (Ray et al., 2009). The polynomial equation of the empirical second order 399 was generated for AMB elimination % (Table 2) as the response variable with three 400 independent variables: 401

402
$$Y = 97.92 + 3.10X_1 - 19.55X_2 + 1.23X_3 + 2.99X_1X_2 + 1.26X_1X_3 + 0.47X_2X_3 - 403 \quad 3.92X_1^2 - 16.3X_2^2 - 4.24X_3^2$$

404 (9)

where Y represents the AMB removal (%) and X_1 , X_2 and X_3 are the coded values of 405 the Mn-TiO₂ dose, initial AMB concentration and pH respectively. Using variance 406 analysis, the experimental data were analyzed for AMB removal from a statistical 407 point of view. The ANOVA for the responses of the second-order quadratic 408 polynomial indicated that this model was very significant, as the F-value for the 409 410 1044.693 model and the corresponding p-value was small (< 0.0001). This result indicated that, regardless of noise, there is only 0.01% probability of the variable F-411 412 value occurring. The lack of fit should be negligible for this model to be widely used 413 for producing predictions. The determination of the coefficient was explained as the 414 ratio of the variation, which showed that the total variation could be used as a measurement of the model degree of fitting. The expected R^2 value (= 0.998) is in 415 good agreement with the corresponding modified R^2 value (= 0.996). The R^2 value 416 must be close to 1 for the best fitting of the experimental results. The smaller the R^2 417 value is, the lower the model adaptation to the experimental data. The R^2 values 418 showed that the quadratic polynomial (Mona et al., 2011) was used to forecast the 419 experimental degradation of AMB. The AMB removal was plotted against the 420 421 corresponding observed values in Fig. S6.

In the event of AMB degradation, the independent variables of the quadratic polynomial X_1 and X_2 , the interaction of the Mn-TiO₂ dose (X_1)/AMB concentration C_0 (X_2), X_1X_2 and the quadratic terms X_1^2 , X_2^2 and X_3^2 are very significant, as their *p*values are smaller than 0.001. From the regression coefficients, the order for which the independent variables influenced AMB degradation is as follows: initial AMB concentration $(X_2) > Mn$ -TiO₂ dose $(X_1) > pH(X_3)$. The positive effects of X_1 and X_3 are very low compared to the negative effect of X_2 , which agree with the reports of the preliminary experiments. Thus, the AMB concentration (C_0) is the dominant factor influencing the AMB photodegradation on Mn-TiO₂. This result is found to efficiently generate oxidizing species such as hydroxyl radicals (*OH).

433

3.3.2 Response surface methodology

Using RSM, the effects of independent variables (the Mn-TiO₂ dose, AMB 434 concentration and pH) and their interaction on AMB degradation were graphically 435 436 illustrated by three-dimensional response surface plots and two-dimensional contour plots. The responses were provided, and the optimal photodegradation percentage was 437 studied (Zhang Junwei et al., 2010). The interaction effect of the dose of Mn-TiO₂ and 438 concentration C₀ on the degradation rate is shown in Fig. 6a. which shows that the 439 440 degradation percentage of AMB diminished with increasing concentration C₀. As 441 shown from the contour diagram (Fig. 6b), a maximal photodegradation was observed 442 in the concentration range (10 - 30 ppm). The AMB photodegradation increased with an increasing the Mn-TiO₂ amount until an optimal value of 0.7 g.L⁻¹, after which it 443 444 remained almost constant, regardless of the dose of the photocatalyst. According to the contour plots, the maximum photodegradation occurred in the region $(0.6 - 1 \text{ g.L}^-)$ 445 ¹). Fig. 6c shows the influence of the concentration C_0 (AMB) and pH on the 446 photodegradation kinetics. According to Fig. 6d and as 447 expected, the 448 photodegradation increased slightly with pH regardless of the concentration of AMB, and the maximum region occurred in the pH region (6-8). Likewise, the augmentation 449 in initial AMB concentration indicated a diminution in the photodegradation rate. 450

451 Moreover, the maximum domain is in the range (10–30 ppm), which is feasible at 452 higher AMB concentrations. The effects of the pH and Mn-TiO₂ dose on the rate of 453 AMB removal are shown in Fig. 6e. One can see that the photodegradation rate 454 slightly increased with increasing pH up to pH 8 and then slowly decreased at high 455 catalyst doses. From the contour plot (Fig. 6f), the maximum domain was in the range 456 $(0.6 - 0.9 \text{ g.L}^{-1})$ of the Mn-TiO₂ dose and pH of 7-8.

457 **3.5.3.** Optimization of the independent variables and the validation experiment

Any reaction system needs to be optimized using various analytical techniques 458 459 and design methodologies to achieve optimal operating conditions and yield the best result. In this study, efforts have been focused on maximizing the AMB concentration 460 C₀ to keep the pH as close as possible to a natural pH and to limit the amount of 461 catalyst used. A Mn-TiO₂ dose of 0.7 g.L⁻¹, an AMB concentration of 37.7 ppm and a 462 pH of 7.7 for the aqueous suspension were found to be optimal for the 463 photodegradation under the mentioned constraints. According to these conditions, the 464 465 RSM predicted the photodegradation rate of AMB of 90%. The results clearly indicated the efficient utilization of RSM to optimize the photocatalytic degradation 466 on Mn-TiO₂ (Moztahida and Lee, 2020). Given these conditions, the model provided 467 a photodegradation abatement of 89%. The results showed the efficiency of the RSM 468 (Moztahida and Lee, 2020) for determining the optimal parameters of AMB 469 470 degradation on Mn-TiO₂ under UVA light.

To verify and validate the model accuracy, AMB photodegradation was performed in batch mode under optimal conditions. From the validation experiments, the photodegradation reached 89%, a result in perfect accordance with the predicted results. Consequently, the successful calculation of the optimum point was 475 demonstrated by RSM. This technique could be employed for the optimization of the

476 photocatalytic degradation of AMB in the presence of Mn-TiO₂.

477 **3.6** Photocatalytic activity of Mn-TiO₂ under optimized conditions

478 **3.6.1 Involvement of hydroxyl radicals in the reaction**

AMB can be oxidized by valence band h^+ or by [•]OH radicals, a degradation by 479 poorly oxidant $O_2^{-\bullet}$ appearing very unlikely. Indeed, aromatic pollutants are generally 480 481 reactive with both species, and the addition of alcohols at moderate concentration is a way to selectively inhibit the free 'OH-mediated processes (Amine-Khoja et al, 2005). 482 Ethanol $(10^{-2} - 10^{-1} \text{ mol}.\text{L}^{-1})$ was used to quench these species and added to the 483 mixture containing AMB and Mn-TiO₂. Fig S7 shows that ethanol inhibited the 484 photocatalytic degradation of AMB by 54 % at 10^{-2} mol.L⁻¹ and by 90-95% at 5.10⁻² 485 mol.L⁻¹ and above. If we make the hypothesis that until 10^{-2} mol.L⁻¹ ethanol only 486 scavenged free [•]OH, then one can conclude that AMB was mainly oxidized by [•]OH 487 whereas h^+ only played a secondary role in the reaction. The significant contribution 488 of 'OH to the reaction here using Mn-TiO₂ was previously reported with TiO₂ 489 Wackherr (Soji et al., 2011). but not observed with TiO₂ Degussa P25 (Soji et al., 490 2011). A plausible explanation of this result may come from the different 491 compositions of the catalysts, as both TiO₂ Wackherr and Mn-TiO₂ crystallizes 492 exclusively in the anatase variety, whereas TiO₂ Degussa P25 consists of 85% anatase 493 494 and 15% rutile (Vione et al., 2005). This may suggest that the presence of the rutile phase affected the contribution of h^+ in the photocatalytic process. Nevertheless, the 495 496 connection between the degradation pathways and crystalline phase needs supplementary studies. 497

498 **3.6.2 Photoproducts studies**

499 **3.6.2.1 Identification of the AMB transformation products (TPs)**

500 One of the goals in this work was to optimize the photocatalytic degradation of AMB based on the kinetic parameters, but the identification of TPs was also of high 501 importance because in some cases, the degradation products are more hazardous than 502 503 the parent compound (Bansal and Sud, 2013). To consider this issue, UHPLC-HRMS analyses were carried out. Solutions withdrawn after 10 min (30% of AMB 504 conversion), 30 min (95% of AMB conversion) and 4 h of irradiation were analyzed 505 and 21 TPs were detected, as listed in Table S4. Table S4 indicates in which ESI 506 mode, positive or negative, the TPs were detected, along with the experimental and 507 508 theoretical m/z values of the detected ions, error in ppm, chemical formula of the neutral TP and possible structure. The tolerance error value of m/z was 5 ppm. 509

AMB had a molecular ion cluster of m/z = 376.9860/378.9825/380.9800 with 510 511 an isotope distribution of 1:2:1, in accordance with the two isotopes of Br (78.9178 512 and 80.9157) with natural abundances of 50.5 and 49.5%. TP1, TP2 and TP3 showed the same three ion clusters with m/z = 392.9788/394.9782/396.9762, m/z = 377.9620/513 514 379.9658/381.9598 and m/z = 263.8754/265.8644/267.8629, respectively. These samples had therefore kept the two Br atoms. TP1 gained one O atom compared to 515 AMB, while in TP2, NH₂ was replaced by OH, and TP3 was formed following 516 cleavage of the aliphatic substituent. Given their two ion clusters with m/z =517 315.0689/317.0669 and m/z = 313.0542/315.0520, and their isotope distribution of 518 519 1:1, TP4 and TP5 were identified as monobrominated derivatives. Based on the probable chemical formulas $C_{13}H_{19}O_2N_2Br$ and $C_{13}H_{17}O_2N_2Br$, one could conclude 520 that TP4 was generated after the loss of Br and the gain of OH and TP5 after the loss 521 522 of Br and 2 H atoms and the gain of OH. The other TPs detected were all debrominated. TP6 with m/z = 267.1335 corresponded to $C_{13}H_{18}O_4N_2$, which 523

indicates the replacement of two Br atoms by two OH groups and the addition of oneO atom.

Photoproducts TP7 to TP12 showed m/z values between 186.1126 and 526 527 114.0913 and contained between 9 and 6 C atoms and 11 to 17 H atoms; thus, these TPs could be assigned to aminocyclohexanol (C₆H₁₁ON) derivatives formed 528 following the detachment of the aromatic ring. TP11 might correspond to 529 aminocyclohexanol, and TP12 to aminocyclohexanone. With C₉H₁₇O₃N, C₈H₁₅O₃N 530 and C₇H₁₃O₃N, TP7, TP8 and TP9 differed by CH₂ and could be assigned to 531 532 aminocyclohexanols with -(CH₂)₂-CO₂H, -CH₂-CO₂H and CO₂H substituents on NH. TP13 and TP14 with m/z = 134.1174 and 128.0340 likely had chemical formulas of 533 534 $C_6H_{15}NO_2$ and $C_5H_7NO_3$ and were formed by opening the cyclohexane ring. The other 535 TPs with m/z ranging from 128.0340 to 59.0127 contained between 6 and 2 C atoms and corresponded to small molecules often detected after photodegradation of 536 aromatic compounds (Y. Liu et al., 2013). 537

For comparison, UHPLC-HRMS analyses of AMB irradiated in the presence of TiO₂ Degussa P25 were carried out. They were also carried out at two conversion extents: 30 and 95%. TP1-TP14 were detected as for Mn-TiO₂, and two new degradation products were detected in ESI⁺. With m/z = 374.9702, 376.9682, 378.9661 and m/z = 372.9544, 374.9522, 376.9501, these compounds correspond to $C_{13}H_{16}ON_2Br_2$ and $C_{13}H_{14}ON_2Br_2$ for the neutral molecules and thus to the elimination of 2 and 4 H atoms respectively.

545

546 **3.6.2.2 Mineralization process**

547 CO₂ results from the ultimate photodegradation of organic compounds in 548 photocatalysis, and its monitoring provides information about the real efficiency of 549 the photocatalytic process. The profile of CO₂ formation under irradiation is shown Fig. S8. After 30 min of irradiation corresponding to complete AMB loss, 550 approximately 5% of the initial organic carbon was converted into CO₂, meaning that 551 552 at this stage, AMB was essentially transformed into intermediary products. Total mineralization (> 96%) was achieved after 24 h of irradiation. Moreover, AMB 553 contains two Br atoms and two amino groups; hence, Br, NH4⁺ and/or NO3⁻ ions 554 might also be generated during degradation (Ganzenko et al., 2020). The formation of 555 these three ions was monitored by ionic chromatography. Data are presented in Fig. 556 557 S8. after 12 h of irradiation. After 12 h of irradiation, at least 97% of the Br atoms were released in solution as Br^{-} and the concentration of NH_4^{+} reached a plateau at 558 559 63% of the total N initially present in AMB, while the concentration of NO_3^- was at 15% and increased progressively until 35% at 24 h. Further oxidation of NH_4^+ into 560 NO_3^- appeared possible. These data showed that Mn-TiO₂ was efficient as a 561 photocatalyst in the elimination and full mineralization of AMB. 562

563

3.6.2.3 Photodegradation mechanism of AMB

The main degradation pathways under Mn-TiO₂ are summarized in Scheme 1. 564 565 Based on the TP structures, it can be supposed that the attack of AMB by 'OH initially led to the replacement of Br by OH (Xu et al., 2011) and of NH₂ by OH(Li et 566 567 al., 2019), along with the oxidation of the aromatic ring or cyclohexanol ring and the cleavage of the C-C bond linking the aromatic to the aliphatic chain. The presence of 568 three C atoms linked to N in TP7 showed that one of the C atoms came from the 569 aromatic ring. TP7 was thus generated by cleavage of the aromatic ring. Further 570 571 oxidations induced the cleavage of the aromatic and cyclohexanol rings to form small carboxylic acids and carbonyls before full mineralization. 572

573 **3.7 Reusability of the catalyst**

574 From the economic and practical point of view, the recyclability and stability 575 of the catalyst is one of the main concerns that has a high impact for its application during the degradation process (Ong et al., 2018). We thus studied the stability of Mn-576 577 TiO₂ by carrying out 4 successive photocatalytic cycles. Between each cycle, the suspension containing the photocatalyst was centrifuged, collected, thoroughly rinsed 578 579 with deionized water and dried at 100 °C for 24 h. Moreover, the structure and composition of Mn-TiO₂ after reuse were reanalyzed by XRD, TEM and SEM to 580 check the stability of the oxide. A very good efficiency was obtained even after 4 581 582 cycles, with each lasting 30 min. The photodegradation performance was nearly unchanged with an abatement close to 100% (Fig. 7a). These results imply that the 583 584 intermediates were not adsorbed either on the surface or in the pores and channels of 585 the catalyst. According to the XRD pattern (Fig. 7b), SEM image (Fig. 7c) and TEM 586 analysis (Fig. 7d), there were no detectable changes in the structure and composition compared to the analysis performed before photocatalysis. Such results provided clear 587 588 proof of the high photocatalytic performance and chemical stability of the used Mn-TiO₂. 589

3.8 Mechanism of 'OH formation from the Mn-TiO₂ photocatalyst

Scheme 2 shows the proposed mechanism. Mn has modified the photoelectric 591 592 properties of TiO₂ by producing an intermediate Mn 3d-O 2p energy level within its energy gap. Above the valence band edge in Mn-TiO₂, an intermediate energy level 593 improves the separation of (e^{-}/h^{+}) pairs to facilitate the electron transfer and narrows 594 the optical band gap to absorb more light by shifting the spectral photoresponse 595 toward longer wavelengths. The half-filled electronic structure of Mn²⁺ enhances the 596 photocatalytic activity because of its electronic configuration $3d^5$, which changes to d^4 597 when accepting h^+ and to d^6 upon receiving electrons (Y. Liu et al., 2020). The energy 598

level of the couple Mn^{2+}/Mn^{+} is below the conduction band edge, while that of 599 Mn^{2+}/Mn^{3+} is above the valence band of TiO₂ (Zhang et al., 2012). Consequently, 600 Mn(II) can trap both h^+ and electrons to assist the charge transfer process in TiO₂ 601 (Eqs. (10) -(12)). Mn(III) is formed by oxidation of Mn(II) by h^+ through a valence 602 band process, and then free hydroxyl OH⁻ is quickly adsorbed and reacts with unstable 603 Mn(III) to produce adsorbed [•]OH (Eq. (13)), which confirms that [•]OH plays the main 604 role in the AMB degradation, a result in agreement with the effect of ethanol. These 605 606 reactions contribute to the charge's separation, which improves the photocatalytic efficiency according to the following sequences: 607

608	TiO ₂	+	hv	\rightarrow	$\mathrm{h^+_{VB}}$	+	e _{CB}
609	(10)						
610	Mn(II)		+	$\boldsymbol{h^+}_{VB}$	\rightarrow		Mn(III)
611	(11)						
612	Mn(II)		+	e _{CB}	\rightarrow		Mn(I)
613	(12)						
614	Mn(III)	+	OH ⁻ /OH ⁻ (ads)	\rightarrow	Mn(II)	+	OH'/OH'(ads)
615	(13)						

616

617 **4. Conclusion**

In this work, a complete investigation was carried out for the characterization of $Mn-TiO_2$ and its application for the photodegradation of AMB, which has not been studied before. The optimization of parameters affecting the photodegradation process was conducted and the radicals, photoproducts, mineralization and stability of the material were evaluated. We have demonstrated that $Mn-TiO_2$ displayed a good photocatalytic activity and structural stability. The morphology, structural and optical 624 properties of the Mn-TiO₂ nanocomposite were investigated. The optimal parameters of the initial AMB concentration, Mn-TiO₂ dose and pH assessed by the response 625 surface methodology and contour plots were 0.625 g.L⁻¹, 30 ppm, and 7 respectively. 626 At these optimal parameters, a complete photodegradation was achieved after 30 min 627 of irradiation. The degradation kinetic obeyed a pseudo-first-order model. A high 628 determination coefficient ($R^2 = 0.998$ and Adj- $R^2 = 0.996$) was obtained by the 629 variance analysis, thus ensuring a satisfactory adjustment of the second-order 630 regression model with the experimental results. Trapping experiments have 631 demonstrated that hydroxyl radicals were the main active oxidant species. The 632 UHPLC-ESI-HRMS and ionic chromatography techniques showed that the 633 634 photocatalytic process could be used for a complete mineralization. Finally, the 635 reusability of the photocatalyst for 4 consecutive cycles was shown. Such results 636 provided proof of the high photocatalytic performance and chemical stability of Mn-TiO₂ which is also attractive from an economic point of view Studies on other hetero-637 638 junctions or even other catalysts based on this material are in progress, and many applications are being targeted in addition to those in pollutant elimination (e.g., 639 antibacterial activity and H₂ production and storage). 640

641

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